

**Evaluation of Average Run Lengths of
Cumulative Sum Charts**

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Description and Purpose

Function CUSARL evaluates the average run length (ARL) of a cumulative sum chart for a specified allowance and decision interval. The algorithm is a refinement of the Markov chain model introduced by Brook and Evans (1972).

Theory and Methods

Let X_1, X_2, \dots follow a standard normal distribution $N(0,1)$, and consider a one-sided cumulative sum chart defined by

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= 0 \\ S_n &= \max(0, S_{n-1} + X_n - k). \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The constant k is termed the 'allowance' or the 'reference value'. If S_n exceeds a constant h - the 'decision interval', then the process is diagnosed as having gone out of control. Of interest is the average run length until this occurs. The algorithm given here computes this average run length. It is also able to give the run length when the process goes out of control. Suppose for example that the mean of X changes to say μ , then we may rewrite the cusum as

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &= 0 \\ S_n &= \max[0, S_{n-1} + (X_n - \mu) - (k - \mu)] \end{aligned}$$

where the increments $(X_n - \mu)$ are $N(0,1)$. The out-of-control ARL is therefore given by the in-control ARL of a cusum defined with allowance $k - \mu$ and the same decision interval h .

Brook and Evans introduced the Markov process approach to computing the average run length. Discretize the range of possible values of S into the $M+2$ disjoint states:-

State 0: $S=0$

State i : $(i-1)\Delta < S \leq i\Delta$ $i=1, \dots, M$, where the mesh $\Delta = h/M$

State $M+1$: $S > h$.

Let R the $(M+1) \times (M+1)$ transition probability matrix with elements

$$r_{ij} = \Pr[S_n \text{ in state } j \mid S_{n-1} \text{ in state } i] \quad i=0,1,\dots,M, j=0,1,\dots,M.$$

Letting $\mathbf{1}$ be a vector of length $M+1$ all of whose elements are 1 and solving the equation

$$(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{R})\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{1},$$

the i^{th} element of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ($i=0,1,\dots,M$) gives the ARL of the cusum with S_0 at state i . Thus the ARL for the cusum as we defined it with $S_0=0$ is the 0^{th} element of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$.

The discretization approximates the continuum of possible values of S by a finite set of classes and the quality of the approximation to the ARL depends on the accuracy of approximation of the transition probabilities. We will write the general transition probability as

$$\Pr[a < S_{i+1} < b \mid c < S_i < d].$$

Brook and Evans approximate this probability by placing S_{i+1} and S_i at the centres of their classes. A more accurate analysis is as follows:- Let $\mu(x)$ be the measure of S_i conditional on $c < S_i < d$, and write Φ for the standard normal integral. Then it is easily verified that

$$\Pr[a < S_{i+1} < b \mid c < S_i < d] = \int_c^d [\Phi(b-s+k) - \Phi(a-s-k)] d\mu(s). \quad (2)$$

The measure μ is not known, but may be replaced by a uniform density. We investigated several candidate measures, but did not find any that converged more quickly than the uniform.

The integral (2) is then approximated by Simpson quadrature using the function values at c , d and $f = \frac{1}{2}(c+d)$. This then gives the approximation

$$\Pr[a < S_{i+1} < b \mid c < S_i < d] = [\Phi(b-c+k) + 4\Phi(b-f+k) + \Phi(b-d+k) - \Phi(a-c+k) - 4\Phi(a-f+k) - \Phi(a-d+k)]/6.$$

Comparing this formula with Brook and Evans' simpler approximation shows that the two can differ considerably, particularly when the intervals (a,b) and (c,d) are wide and/or far apart. On the face of it, our more complex approximation is unattractive as it requires many values of the normal integral. Appearances are deceptive however, since the same normal ordinates appear repeatedly and can be accommodated by building up a array of normal integral values. Further, the major work involved is in the solution of a system of $M+1$ linear equations, and so the computations of the normal integral are a minor part of the total computation anyway.

In their implementation, Brook and Evans suggest evaluating the ARL at three or more different values of the discretization mesh Δ . Writing $ARL(\Delta)$ for the approximate ARL computed using mesh Δ they get the least squares fit of the model

$$ARL(\Delta) = ARL(0) + B\Delta + C\Delta^2,$$

whose intercept gives an estimate of the approximate ARL extrapolated to mesh $\Delta=0$.

We studied the values of $ARL(\Delta)$ for a variety of h and k using our approach, and found that, except for very large Δ , $ARL(\Delta)$ was well approximated by $ARL(0) + C\Delta^2$ - ie the linear term is absent. This led us to the use of Richardson extrapolation to decimate successive terms in the Taylor expansion of $ARL(\Delta)$, starting with the quadratic. This process is illustrated in the following tables, which show an 'easy' case ($h=2, k=1$) where high accuracy is attained with quite small values of $M=h/\Delta$, and a 'hard case' ($h=10, k=0.125$) where a much larger value of M is required. Richardson extrapolation produces a lower triangular array whose diagonal values give the successive estimates. In both tables, to save space we have omitted the fifth, sixth and seventh columns, whose entries agree with the bottom right figure listed to all figures. Also given in each table is the intercept of the three-term quadratic extrapolation.

(i) $h=2, k=1$

M	Raw $ARL(\Delta)$	Richardson extrapolation stage			
		1	2	3	4
2	194.2772176				
4	240.2663182	255.5960184			
8	253.9105873	258.4586769	258.6495208		
16	257.4720344	258.6591834	258.6725505	258.6729161	
32	258.3720535	258.6720599	258.6729183	258.6729241	258.6729242
64	258.5976659	258.6728700	258.6729240	258.6729241	258.6729241
128	258.6541070	258.6729207	258.6729241	258.6729241	258.6729241

Quadratic extrapolation

stage	M= 8	16	32	64	
	261.321	258.860	258.684	258.673368	258.672

(ii) $h=10, k=0.125$

M	Raw ARL(Δ)	Richardson extrapolation stage				
		1	2	3	4	
2	50.1855979					
4	128.1137712	154.0898290				
8	258.3235917	301.7268652	311.5693343			
16	352.6504908	384.0927905	389.5838521	390.8221778		
32	387.2866981	398.8321006	399.8147212	399.9771160	400.0130177	
64	396.9574027	400.1809709	400.2708956	400.2781364	400.2793169	
128	399.4455574	400.2749423	400.2812070	400.2813707	400.2813834	

Quadratic extrapolation

stage M=	8	16	32	64	128
	449.364	466.459	413.571	401.530	400.369

The first striking feature of these tables is the quality of the two approaches to extrapolation to $\Delta=0$ - comparing the quadratic extrapolates with the diagonals of the array for the same M shows the much higher accuracy of the Richardson extrapolation - for example $M=32$ in the hard case is sufficient to provide accuracy for which the quadratic extrapolation requires $M=128$; and in the easy case, $M=8$ matches $M=32$ with quadratic extrapolation. In both cases, the quadratic extrapolation would take about $4^3 = 64$ times as long for the same precision, since the dominant computation for M large is the solution of the $M+1$ linear equations.

The second observation is of the difference between each diagonal element and its predecessor, which provides an estimate of the extrapolate's precision. As the table shows, this estimate is conservative, so stopping the calculation when two successive diagonal elements agree to the desired precision ensures a final ARL accurate to at least that precision.

The program works like the illustration, using interval halving starting at $M=2$ with a test on the agreement of successive diagonal elements, and stops when two successive values are within the user-set tolerance. There is a limit on the number of interval halvings that will be attempted, and an error condition occurs if this limit is reached without attaining the specified accuracy.

Structure

DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION CUSARL(DI,REF,EPS,IFAUULT)

Formal parameters

DI	Double precision	Input: The decision interval h.
REF	Double precision	Input: The allowance (or reference value) k
EPS	Double precision	Input: The convergence criterion
IFAUULT	Integer	Output: An error indicator: =0 if no error is detected; =1 if DI is less than or equal to zero; =2 if there is enough subtractive cancellation; to threaten the required precision; =4 if there is no convergence within the number of interval halvings allowed.

A return value of IFAUULT=6 means that both the last two conditions occurred.

Since the computation involves the solution of a set of linear equations, a situation that is fraught with potential for subtractive cancellation, the function and all variables in it are specified as double precision. On computers whose single precision is high (for example CDC 60 bit architectures) single precision could be used by changing the FUNCTION statement to

FUNCTION CUSARL(DI,REF,EPS,IFAUULT)

and removing the IMPLICIT statement.

In addition to the formal parameters of the call, three constants are set within the code by means of a PARAMETER statement. These are:- MAXHLF, MAXPOW and TOLER. MAXHLF is the maximum number of interval halvings allowed, and MAXPOW must be set = 2^{MAXHLF} . MAXPOW affects the storage that needs to be reserved for the two working arrays in the function. For mainframe operation and full-sized personal computers, the values MAXHLF=7, MAXPOW=128 should give more than enough precision in the final answers, with a requirement of about 36,000 double words of storage for variables. For operation on smaller personal computers, these values may be too big, when the choice MAXHLF=6, MAXPOW=64 is indicated, which requires about 9,000 double words for array storage. Even MAXHLF=5, MAXPOW=32 might be used if for low precision with very limited storage.

TOLER is used to indicate the machine precision. For floating point hardware conforming to the IEEE standard, the choice $\text{TOLER}=1.D-12$ appears adequate. TOLER is not used directly in assessing precision, but is used to detect possible subtractive cancellation - IFAULT is set to 2 (diagnosing possible subtractive cancellation) if any pivot in the Gauss Jordan inversion falls below TOLER/EPS . This has been seen on occasion, but only when both h and k were large, generally corresponding to ARL's in excess of 10^{10} .

Lucas and Crosier (1982) suggested modifying the cusum by the use of a 'head start'. In their variant, instead of being initialised to 0, S_0 is set to some positive constant, for which they recommend the value $\frac{1}{2}h$. While the code as written deals with the conventional cusum, a minor change will approximate their 'head start' cusum. The change required is in the line below statement 11:- replace the statement

OLD = ANSWER(0) with

OLD = HALF * (ANSWER(MBIG/2)+ANSWER(MBIG/2+1))

There is an element of approximation here in that, while their 'head start' cusum is initialised to exactly $\frac{1}{2}h$, the modified program treats the initial value as being uniformly distributed within the range $\frac{1}{2}h-\Delta$ to $\frac{1}{2}h+\Delta$. While it is possible to refine the approximation, for most practical purposes this should be close enough to the truth.

Auxiliary algorithm

The function requires a high-precision function for the evaluation of the normal integral. For this, the code as written uses ALNORM (Hill 1973).

Timings and accuracy

The program was tested on an IBM-compatible PC with a math coprocessor. 100 (h,k) pairs were generated by taking k at random in the range 0 to 2, and fixing an ARL whose common log was uniformly distributed in the range 1 to 4 and finding the implied h . That h and k were then passed to CUSARL. The precision EPS was specified as 0.001. This procedure is a reasonable simulation of the likely use of the function.

The 100 evaluations took 440 seconds, for an average of 4.4 seconds per evaluation. The returned value of IFAULT was 0 in all 100 of the runs, indicating no convergence problems or significant precision loss.

To check on the precision, the same pairs were re-evaluated, but setting $EPS=0.00001$ and the relative error in the initial evaluation was computed. When setting $EPS=0.001$, thereby requesting three digits of precision, the actual number of digits of precision was found to average 6.3, with a minimum of 3.9. This confirms the general observation that the actual precision is better than the convergence criterion used of agreement between the successive diagonal values. The frequency distribution of the different M required for the moderate and high precision solution shows the reason for the very rapid evaluations; even at the high precision, most required no more than $M=32$.

M		4	8	16	32	64	128
Frequency	$EPS=10^{-3}$	13	33	25	20	8	1
	$EPS=10^{-5}$	5	14	29	29	15	8.

References

Brook D., and Evans, D. A., (1972), 'An approach to the probability distribution of cusum run length', *Biometrika*, 59, 539-549.

Hill, I. D., (1973), 'AS 66: The normal integral', *Applied Statistics*, 22, 424-427.

Lucas, J. M., and Crosier, R. B., (1982), 'Fast initial response for CUSUM quality control schemes: Give your CUSUM a head start', *Technometrics*, 24, 199-205


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DO 70 J = 0, MBIG
  PIVOT = COPY(J,J)
  DO 60 JJ = J+1,MBIG
    FMULT = COPY(JJ,J) / PIVOT
    DO 50 I = 0, MB1
      COPY(JJ,I) = COPY(JJ,I) - FMULT * COPY(J,I)
50    CONTINUE
60    CONTINUE
70  DO 90 J = MBIG, 0, -1
    SUM = COPY(J,MB1)
    DO 80 I = J+1,MBIG
      SUM = SUM - ANSWER(I) * COPY(J,I)
80    IF (COPY(J,J) .LT. TOLER/EPS) IFAULT = 2
    ANSWER(J) = SUM / COPY(J,J)
90    CONTINUE
C
C      Do the Richardson extrapolation
C
  RICCHAR(MLOOP,1) = ANSWER(0)
  POW = ONE
  DO 100 JL = 2, MLOOP
    POW = POW * 4
    RICCHAR(MLOOP,JL) = (POW * RICCHAR(MLOOP,JL-1) - RICCHAR
1    (MLOOP-1,JL-1)) / (POW - 1)
100  CONTINUE
    IF (MLOOP .EQ. 1) GO TO 110
    OACCEL = RICCHAR(MLOOP-1,MLOOP-1)
    ACCEL = RICCHAR(MLOOP,MLOOP)
    ERROR = ABS(ACCEL - OACCEL)
    IF (ERROR .LT. EPS * ACCEL) GO TO 120
110  CONTINUE
    IFAULT = IFAULT + 4
120  CONTINUE
    CUSARL = ACCEL
130  CONTINUE
    RETURN
  END

```

DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION CUSARL(DI,REF,EPS,IFAUULT)

Obtains the average run length of a cusum
with decision interval DI and allowance REF.
The ARL is computed to precision EPS.

PARAMETER (MAXPOW=128,MAXHLF=7,TOLER=1.D-12)
IMPLICIT DOUBLE PRECISION (A-H,O-Z)
DIMENSION TRAN(0:MAXPOW+1,0:MAXPOW+1),ANSWER(0:MAXPOW+1),
1 COPY(0:MAXPOW+1,0:MAXPOW+1),PHITAB(-2*MAXPOW-2:2*MAXPOW+2),
2 RICHHAR(MAXHLF,MAXHLF)
DATA ZERO/0.D0/,HALF/0.5D0/,ONE/1.D0/,FOUR/4.D0/,FIVE/5.D0/,
1 SIX/6.D0/
IFAUULT = 0
IF (DI .LE. 0) THEN
IFAUULT = 1
CUSARL = ZERO
GO TO 130
ENDIF
MBIG = 1

Start outer loop of interval halving

DO 110 MLOOP = 1,MAXHLF
MBIG = 2 * MBIG
MB1 = MBIG + 1
DELTA = DI / FLOAT(MBIG)
MTWO = 2 * MBIG
FACT = FOUR

Set up table of needed values of the normal integral

DO 10 I = -MTWO-2, MTWO+2
ARG = HALF * DELTA * I + REF
FACT = FIVE - FACT
PHITAB(I) = ALNORM(ARG,.FALSE.) * FACT / SIX
CONTINUE

Set up the matrix of transition probabilities

DO 30 J = 1, MBIG
INX = 2 * J
TRAN(J,0) = PHITAB(-INX) + PHITAB(-INX+1) + PHITAB(-INX+2)
TRAN(0,J) = SIX * (PHITAB(INX) - PHITAB(INX-2))
TRAN(MB1,J) = ZERO
DO 20 I = 1, MBIG
INX = 2 * (I - J)
TRAN(J,I) = (PHITAB(INX+2) - PHITAB(INX)) + (PHITAB(INX+1) -
1 PHITAB(INX-1)) + (PHITAB(INX) - PHITAB(INX-2))
20 CONTINUE
30 CONTINUE
TRAN(0,0) = SIX * PHITAB(0)
TRAN(MB1,MB1) = ONE
TRAN(MB1,0) = ZERO

Set up the matrix for the linear equations

DO 40 J = 0, MB1
COPY(J,MB1) = ONE
DO 40 I = 0, MBIG
COPY(J,I) = -TRAN(J,I)
IF (I .EQ. J) COPY(J,I) = COPY(J,I) + ONE
40 CONTINUE

Now do the Gauss-Jordan elimination